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ABSTRACT

Sections of this paper deal with the place of inservice teacher training in the total teacher training pattern, the purposes of inservice training, the politics determining which institutions govern inservice programs, the approaches to planning activities, and the content of programs. Among the general principles espoused are that the training of teachers should be planned as a continuum in which aspects of the training are conducted when and where appropriate; the notion that professional development is concerned with teacher growth is more acceptable and more general than the notion of correcting defects; teacher/school district control of inservice programs is recommended; institutional planning systems are in general preferable to ad hoc systems because they provide for a broader range of programs and for continuity; and seeking an acceptable balance between system and teacher needs, via an objective and precise diagnostic system, is essential if the overall objective of improving instruction is to be met.
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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A STATUS REPORT

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A THE CURRENT PROBLEMS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The current problems of professional development (or inservice training, as it is often known) can be summed up in a multi-part question: who does what, for whom, how and when? The balance of this paper will be concerned with this question, and only a brief overview will be given here.

The problem of who carries on inservice training is partly political, and partly financial in its implications. Faculties of education, extension services like those of OISE, teacher centres operated by local school districts or by consortia, departments of education (ministries, in Ontario terminology) and teachers' associations are all carrying on professional development. At this point there is little or no struggle for control of it, but this will come.

What is done by way of professional development is equally random and multi-faceted. Unfortunately, John MacDonald's condition that "no new teacher education programs should be devised that are not based on a thorough analysis of teaching as a task" (1968) has not been observed, and Competency Based Teacher Education programs have usually not been research based. The general progress of attempts to analyze teaching is reviewed in Morine and Morine (1973). Research specifically on teacher education, which involves "a quest for more dependable knowledge of teaching behaviour - its elements and their influence on pupil learning" (Smith, 1971) has also not been very successful to date.

For whom professional development is carried on is also a matter of some concern. There are two basic ways of defining the clientele, the first based on the assumption that professional development or inservice training is intended to correct defects, the second based on the assumption of continuous professional growth (Jackson, 1971). Clientele in the first case, then, would be teachers whose effectiveness is in question; in the second case it would be virtually all or any teachers.

How professional development should be carried on is again uncertain, and again there are two general modes. The first is the sort of ad hoc arrangement common in most school districts, in which a committee gets together to plan some sessions for their colleagues for the days assigned by government regulations. The alternative is some form of institutional arrangment for conducting inservice for professional development work, such as a teacher centre or an extension service which carries on continuous planning of programs.

Finally, the question of when inservice should be carried on is of interest. One of the characteristic weaknesses of inservice programs is the utilization of the teacher's own time after the end of his teaching day. This has been resented by dedicated teachers, and is increasingly being supplemented by teacher release time and the provision of inservice days in regulations of the minister. Nevertheless the great bulk of inservice and professional development work still takes place in the teacher's own time, for example, via credit courses during the summer, or evening courses, credit or non-credit, during the school year.

The balance of this paper will be intended to provide some tentative answers to the questions posed here, and to outline what I see as the emerging nature of professional development work in Canada.

B PLACE OF INSERVICE TRAINING IN THE TOTAL TRAINING PATTERN

It seems clear that inservice and preservice training have rarely been considered as two parts of a training continuum, of which the desired outcome is a fully competent professional. To my knowledge, only the James Report on Teacher Training in Britain (1972) has considered the implications of this concept fully. Discussing teacher training, the report maintains that

> the system is no longer adequate to its purposes. That inadequacy arises from an overdependence upon initial training, as distinct from continued education and training . . . Changes must be made if the needs of the schools and of society over the next 20 years are to be met . . . (p.1).

The report then goes on to outline what they describe as the three cycles of education and training for teachers: "the first, personal education; the second, preservice education and induction; the third, inservice education and training" (p.3). The report makes it clear that the most important area of training is inservice training, and consequently deals first with it, then with preservice training and finally with personal education. The most important recommendation is that

> a large expansion of third-cycle provision, to give every teacher an entitlement to regular inservice education and training, is an essential precondition of a more realistic, rational approach to initial training in the second cycle (p.3).

If the notion of a continuum of education and training is accepted, one must then determine what can best be taught at various points in the continuum, in general terms.

The preservice teacher education programs offered at universities generally contain three elements. The first deals with curriculum content, that is, the knowledge and concepts which make up the content of what is taught in schools. The second element concerns itself with professional knowledge and attitudes, including such topics as learning theory, child development, testing and measurement, and curriculum design. The third area

concerns itself with instructional skills and methodologies, particularly such elements as interaction skills and behaviour patterns necessary for efficient functioning in the classroom. (This analysis is based on Smith, 1971.)

If these are the three areas of education and training, and the three sequential elements are personal education, preservice education and training, and inservice education and training, as delineated in the James Report, then a matrix as follows will define the general content and sequence of total professional growth.

AREAS OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT, STAGES OF GROWTH, AND RELATED SCREENING SYSTEMS

AREAS / STAGES	KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECT MATTER	PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES	TECHNICAL SKILLS OF TEACHING
PERSONAL EDUCATION	↓		
	ENTRY TO TEACHER TRAINING		
PRESERVICE EDUCATION		↓	↓
	CERTIFICATION AND PROBATIONARY YEARS		
INITIAL INSERVICE EDUCATION		↓	↓
	EVALUATION AS TEACHER		
CONTINUING INSERVICE EDUCATION	↓	↓	↓
	FULL PROFESSIONAL STATUS AND COMPETENCE		

This may be oversimplified, but in essence it seems a reasonable pattern in which what can best be done in a faculty of education is done there, and what can best be done in an inservice setting, technical teaching skills, is done there. Borg comments "The inservice setting is particularly well suited to instruction in classroom skills . . . (1970, p. 23). Put bluntly, "The place to learn to be a teacher is in a school" (Spillane and Levenson, 1976, p.438). Such an analysis would suggest, for example, that the practice teaching component in preservice education is in fact not the final component of preservice education, but the first component of inservice education, and that the responsibility for carrying it out is wrongly located at present in faculties of education. Microteaching, from this point of view, is a response to the problem of inappropriate locale. It was developed initially at Stanford University because of the difficulty of arranging practice teaching (Allen and Ryan, 1969, p.iv). Recent research findings indicating that practice teaching may be of little value, or indeed be harmful, have tended to strengthen micro-teaching (Borg et al, 1970, p.22).

Attempts to describe in detail the continuing elements or the general theme which links preservice and inservice education clearly must be related to a total approach to education. One attempt to develop a comprehensive innovation, linking competency-based teacher education, individually guided education, and the multi-unit schools, has been made (Dickson and Saxe, 1973). The unifying theme I would assert is even more general, and is the concern with objectives. The overall approach is suggested in the accompanying diagram. The competency-based programs of pre and inservice teacher education could be called training by objectives, since the key element in the teacher competency is the stagement of objectives (see Houston and Howsam, 1972, for this characterization of CBTE; Knezevich, 1973, for the general notion of EBO).

Unfortunately, the possibility of common continuing elements based on competency based teacher education principles is restricted by some of the inherent weaknesses of competency based teacher education. The theoretical basis was sound, including the emphasis on performance: "Three types of criteria are used to determine the competencies of the teacher: knowledge criteria, performance criteria, and product criteria". (Dickson and Saxe, 1973, p.16). The first set of criteria assess the teacher's understanding of concepts, the second, his teaching behaviour, and the third the achievement of the pupils he has taught. But the research basis for the product criteria simply did not exist when competency based teacher education programs were being developed. As we will see in subsequent sections, even now it is hard to specify elements of teacher behaviour which significantly affect the achievement of the pupils, and certainly no detailed set of training specifications, based on research on outcomes, is yet available, or even in prospect (Borg et al, 1970, P. 192).

General Principles

Clearly, the training of teachers should be planned as a continuum, in which aspects of the training are conducted when and where appropriate. In this context, inservice training becomes relatively more important.

The content of the training continuum ought to consist of the outcomes of an analysis of the act of teaching. However, the necessary research has yet to be completed.

C THE PURPOSES OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT (INSERVICE TRAINING)

There are a number of ways of defining the purposes of professional development, or inservice training, all of which return to the same general theme, that the overall purpose is to improve instruction. There are two rather different approaches, however. The first is the notion that professional development work is for the purpose of remedying defects in the teacher. Thus, one could describe the relationship between supervision and professional development work, with the supervision being aimed at identifying remediable defects, and professional development activities providing the remedies. The alternative approach is the notion of professional growth as a continuing necessity for all teachers. This has the advantage of avoiding invidious comparisons, and allows for the preparation of teachers for methodological or curriculum innovations, the development of new staff patterns, and the adding of new areas of instruction to the school program. However, in essence, these are not different, since the teacher who does not know how to teach a new program has, of course, a defect. Thus, these are only positive and negative sides of the same coin.

To say that the purpose of professional development is to improve instruction is to make two large assumptions: first, that changing teachers' knowledge and/or behaviour will improve instruction, and second, that professional development programs can change teachers. The first of these has certainly been challenged and the challenge responded to (Coleman, 1966; Mosteller & Moynihan, 1972; Jencks, 1972; Mood, 1970). These issues cannot be dealt with here, but some recent evidence as to teacher effectiveness, and the utility of some programs, can be reviewed briefly.

A list of linked propositions is perhaps the easiest way to review this complex field:

1. Reliable gains in student learning do occur, on occasion, as a consequence

of more effective teaching.

2. The characteristics of this effective teaching can be analyzed in terms of teacher classroom behaviours on certain dimensions.
3. Teacher behaviour on these dimensions can be changed positively.
4. Some inservice programs have demonstrated the ability to change the relevant behaviours.

The teacher behaviours important in effective teaching are beginning to emerge. Recent review of research agree, in general (Rosenshine & Furst, 1971; Gage, 1972). The list used here is from the first citation, which concludes

> of all the variables which have been investigated in process-product studies to date, five variables have strong support from correlational studies . . . The five variables which yielded the strongest relationships with measures of student achievement are: clarity, variability, enthusiasm, task orientation and/or business-like behaviour, and student opportunity to learn" (Rosenshine & Furst, 1971, p. 54).

Additionally, a sixth variable, indirectness, has apparent promise, but is very complex.

There is, furthermore, some evidence that programs which focus on some of these variables can change teacher behaviour (Roberson, 1969; Strickler, 1972; Wilson, 1972; Borg et al, 1970), and also affect positively student learning. Thus the research groundwork for a serious attempt to improve instruction via professional development does now exist.

General Principles

> The notion that professional development is concerned with teacher growth is more acceptable and more general than the notion of correcting defects.
>
> The general purpose of professional development programs is the improvement of instruction. Recently research in teaching as a task has yielded sufficient information to allow planners to identify programs likely to be effective in improving instruction.

D THE POLITICS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Within the overall purpose of improving instruction, it should be noted that there are different balances of advantage that can be struck. Thus, for example, an educational leave can be considered inservice training, yet unless the type of training required on the educational leave is specified very closely by the school district administration, in order to fit the teacher on leave for a particular position, there is little advantage for the school district, while there is substantial advantage for the individual teacher. Again, a curriculum project in which teachers are prepared to handle a new unit in social studies which has been introduced by the appropriate curriculum authority, is of significant advantage to the school district and to the students, but relatively may not be of great personal advantage to the teacher.

Thus we arrive at perhaps the most interesting current issue in professional development, that of governance or control. There are a number of claimants, all with a rational case and some resources, but none with money in the appropriate quantities. The major parties are departments of education, teacher associations, universities, and school boards.

Departments will claim traditional responsibilities, but by and large have neither money or expertise for the work. Teacher associations have very little money, since negotiations activities often consume most of the budget, but may well have expertise, and do have in general the confidence of the clients. Universities do have expertise, but do not have money, and have in most instances become badly isolated from the field, so that they have little credibility as providers of professional development. School districts have the money, although it may not readily be allocated for this function. They may also have the expertise and information about needs not available to other organizations. But they lack, in most instances, the

confidence of the clients because of the paranoic fear of evaluation pervading teaching, that most insecure of all professions.

A cynic might wonder why, after years of tenuous and orphaned existence, professional development is now being claimed eagerly by so many people as a long-lost child. The reasons are peculiar to the institutions: faculties of education have accepted the fact that preservice training is a declining industry, and are seeking make-work projects; departments are desperately seeking new functions to replace the old supervisory functions lost to decentralization; teacher associations are aware that professionalization of the membership is largely a function of professional development; school districts are daily reminded by parents and students of the need for the improvement of instruction, and besides, they have all those empty schools to fill.

The common solution to this problem is the notion of consortia, in such forms as the "professional centre" in the James Report, the Teacher Education Centres common in the U.S. or the Teacher Centres becoming common throughout Great Britain and North America (of which more later). These consortia bring together the various resources of the parties in what is at first sight a logical response to a variety of problems.

The control question is answered in such consortia in a variety of ways, and with a range of emphasis on interdependence. A sample hierarchy of possible agreements and levels of co-operation is provided by Houston and Howsam (1972, p.94). These are uneasy partnerships, however, and the ponderous nature of decision-making in some of the parent bodies, certain to be reflected in the consortium's governance; the different needs of the parties; and the problem of funding will I believe destroy consortia rather rapidly.

In any event, the control issue is crucial, just as it is in teacher education:

> Competency-based teacher education will not revolutionize the schools, because we are, as usual, arguing about the content of the courses, not about the essential issue, which is control of the courses. All the competency-based teacher education courses, however thin the baloney is sliced, leave the control of teacher education with the colleges and the state departments of education which have created our present intolerable situation. The two groups which have the greatest stake in the result of teacher training, teachers and school districts, are left powerless (Spillane and Levenson,1976, p.435).

In my view, it is a mistake to allow control of inservice education to move out of local hands, and the governance model most likely to be successful is the one becoming common amongst non-university-oriented Teacher Centres - control by the clients, with funding by local authorities (see Coleman, 1975, Appendix B, for a fuller description and an illustration). This is also proposed for the British professional centres. The contributions of other parties can then be determined by contractual arrangements. Perhaps even performance contracting, using competency-based teacher education approaches, is possible. Certainly this would be a useful discipline for faculties of education.

General Principles

> Departments of education, teacher associations, universities and schools all seek some measure of control of professional development for various reasons.
>
> Although consortia of the various parties are currently popular, as means of governing inservice work, the ponderous decision-making systems of some of the parties are certain to cause frustration. Teacher/school district control is recommended.

E PLANNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

In general, there are two different approaches to planning professional development activities: the first is an ad hoc system, in which a variety of provisions are made by a variety of people; the second is an institutional system, that is a clear delegation of professional development to an agency with funds and resources to carry it out. Both of these supplement the purely personal career planning of individuals, of course.

The first can take a variety of forms, from school level activities, to district-wide activities, or even, in Manitoba, province-wide sessions. All such systems share some common characteristics:

- ad hoc planning, usually by a temporary committee
- no concern for continuity
- only vague matching of needs and programs
- difficulties in identifying good resource people
- an emphasis on general interest programs, as opposed to programs intended to make lasting changes in classroom behaviour.

Institutional systems are superior in some ways, in particular in their emphasis on continuity. An illustration of a district-wide ad hoc system for planning and implementing two inservice days is given in Appendix C. In brief, the critical path in planning was as follows:

1. Assess need for, or advantages of, a district-wide activity, and acquire some money.
2. Establish a planning committee.
3. Identify purposes, general nature of inservice sessions, and evaluation procedures.
4. List some possible topics and resource people for sessions.
5. Survey teachers for reaction to tentative lists, and initial registrations.
6. Amend list of sessions, and resource people, and resurvey for firm registrations.
7. Hold sessions, and subsequently evaluate them.

Two assumptions are critically important: one, that teachers can readily identify their own needs; and two, that one or two-day general interest sessions are appropriate forms of inservice programs. Points made previously would challenge the latter, and what follows will challenge the former.

Institutional planning of professional development can be illustrated by reference to Teacher Centres, which apparently "are quickly taking over inservice education" (IDEA, 1975). In general, the Teacher Centre is probably the most successful innovation for a long time. The first British Teacher Centre was opened in 1964. By November 1974, there were 521 in operation. In the U.S., there were none in 1970, and in 1974 over 4,500 (IDEA, 1975). In part this success is because of the current popularity of inservice, for the reasons already given, and in part because centres are generally teacher-controlled. Bailey gives a succinct statement of this reason for their success:

> The underlying rationale for Teacher Centres may be stated succinctly in terms of three interlocking propositions: 1) Fundamental educational reform will come only through those charged with the basic educational responsibility: to wit, the teachers. 2) Teachers are unlikely to change their ways of doing things just because imperious, theoretical reformers - whether successions of Rickovers or Illiches or high-powered R. & D. missionaries from central educational systems - tell them to shape up! 3) Teachers will take reform seriously only when they are responsible for defining their own educational problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving help on their own terms and turf (1971, p.146).

Three characteristics of the St. Boniface Teacher Centre, functions, governance and resources, are relevant here as an illustration. The functions of the St. Boniface Teacher Centre are stated on Chart #6 , which also shows the system of governance. Essentially, the Centre is operated by a policy-making committee, which makes all major decisions, and delegates minor ones to a full-time co-ordinator. Six of the seven committee members are named by the Division Association. These members must meet various criteria of

representativeness. The seventh member of the Steering Committee is the Superintendent or his delegate. The committee elects its own chairman, who, in addition to the normal duties, is responsible for the presentation to the school board of the annual budget of the Teacher Centre.

The task of developing guidelines for the operation of the Centre is both important and difficult, as is building a good communication system with teachers. But the most difficult area is diagnosing teacher needs: this must be objective; must be individualized; must incorporate normal clinical supervision practices, and in part be based on classroom observation; and yet must be acceptable to teachers. This problem has not been solved, but it appears that micro-teaching might, at least in part, provide the solution. Certainly this problem must be solved if Teacher Centres are to provide professional development programs likely to improve instruction. Prescribing programs will be dealt with in detail in the next section.

The main advantage of the Teacher Centre approach is continuity, and in particular the ability to run longer programs, covering a broader range of teacher needs. There is some evidence that longer programs are considered more effective by teachers (Filep, 1971, p.54), and certainly for programs intended to change teacher behaviour in the classroom duration would seem to be an important variable. A second and related advantage is the usefulness of having a locale and some simple equipment (offset, camera, filmstrip maker, laminator, Xerox machine for transparencies, and basic video equipment) for programs and activities, continuously available.

General Principles

Institutional planning systems are in general preferable to ad hoc systems because they provide for a broader range of programs, and for continuity.

Teacher Centres are a common and apparently promising institutional approach to providing inservice programs.

The governance issue, and the diagnosis of teacher and system needs, are vital, and potentially destructive concerns, in planning professional development programs.

F PRESCRIBING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

This is the most difficult area of all, largely because virtually all of the most controversial issues already identified come to a head in this area. We have theoretical-technical problems, summed up in the statement "We have little knowledge of the relationship between teacher behavior and student growth" (Rosenshine & Furst, 1971, p.66), and practical problems associated with supervision methods. In effect, system needs for the improvement of instruction, and teacher needs for non-threatening professional development programs are in conflict here.

What is clear is that the teacher's perception of his needs is not a reliable guide, and that some diagnostic assistance is essential. Good clinical supervision is one route; Teacher self-appraisal techniques are another (Allen et al,1970); both can make use of and benefit substantially from microteaching, which may be vital to any good in-service program since it "greatly expands the normal knowledge-of-results or feedback dimension in teaching" (Allen & Ryan, 1969, p.2). We already know how important feedback is in changing behavior, (Gage, 1972, p.186), at least in favourable circumstances, and the teacher training programs which are demonstrably effective, such as the mini-course approach (Borg et al, 1970) make extensive use of it.

Microteaching has broader advantages than its immediate utility for the behavioural-change programs. These have been experimentally demonstrated, and relate to several of the behavioural dimensions identified as relevant to effective teaching.

> The microteachers advanced considerably in their ability to conceptualize their own and other teaching behaviour and this might provide for them their greatest long-term gain. This led them towards an increasing facility in stating specific objectives, predetermining teacher strategy congruent with these, and evaluating

> their teaching towards such objectives. It seemed that their teaching showed a more business-like approach and a growing economy of presentation. There was a noticeable shift of concern from content to teaching strategy (Wright, Nuthall, & Lawrence, 1970).

Certainly most teachers' classroom behaviour has little of the the analytical about it. Much of the effectiveness of the behavioural programs may in fact result from the new approach to teaching suggested here.

Unfortunately, the behavioural programs are not likely to be as popular as the general-interest programs, which in most cases will have no effect on instruction (see Brown, 1968; Hunkler, 1971; Smith, 1969; Spradlin, 1972; and Whitmore, 1974). The behavioural change programs are hard work, they are longer, and they are inherently threatening because they begin by demonstrating inadequacies. However, undertaken through a teacher centre which provides appropriate resources, they do meet Bush's conditions for an effective in-service program:

1. sufficient time to engage in the program.
2. conditions such that the program can be conducted with the necessary materials and supplies at hand.
3. a program that is relevant to the problem undertaken.
4. the necessary financial and other types of support required to carry it out, and
5. an opportunity to use the results of the training in the regular school situation (1971, p.56).

Additionally, there is some evidence that teachers are ready for more serious inservice work, aimed at developing teaching skills, as indicated by the following:

1. Teachers rated longer-lasting, more expensive activities higher than others (Filep, 1971, p.3).
2. A recent five-state study conducted by the Iowa Centre for Research in School Administration disclosed that . . . teachers overwhelmingly indicated that their chief desire from inservice education programs was to improve their teaching skills (Pasch, 1974, p.1).
3. The success of a long-term, detailed, clinical inservice program in New England, involving nearly 400 teachers over three years (Wilson, 1972). But note that instructional outcomes were not measured directly (p.72).)

Nevertheless, some programs and activities exist which are promising in that they are aimed at the areas of teacher behaviour demonstrably related to effective learning (see the review of research in Purposes of Professional Development), they have been demonstrably effective in making positive changes in teacher behaviour, and they are usable in an inservice context. Some examples are given in the chart. Even where no specific programs exist, there is some evidence that relatively unfocussed micro-teaching activities would be useful.

In addition there are a great many programs available in the form of modules for competency-based teacher education. These modules consist generally of rationale, objectives, pre-assessment, enabling activities ("procedures for attaining the competence specified by the module objectives") and post-assessment (Houston & Howsam, 1972, p.10). The Florida Catalogue of Teacher Competencies remains the best guide to both the competencies identified and the modules available. However, note the qualifier "The materials were examined and listed on face-validity alone. No field-test evidence was considered in selection, nor was any typically available"(Florida Department of Education, 1973, p.433).

Furthermore, as already noted, competencies identified in C.B.T.E. projects are not typically empirically tested for association with student learning. Thus C.B.T.E. modules are generally not reliable inservice tools, as are some of the programs listed in the chart. However, for districts wishing to experiment with inservice programs, the Florida Catalog provides a tremendous source of ready-made materials for trial.

The programs are classified according to Teacher Behaviour (TB), Object of Change (BH), Implied Assessment (IA), Content Area (CA), Pupil Level (PL), Scope (SC), and Outcome (OC). Thus, proper use of the classification system makes possible the quick identification of programs available for trial. To take a random example, a district wishing to modify elementary

teacher behaviour in the area of problem solving, with a pupil change outcome, would find ten competency statements related to problem-solving, of which only one met all the criteria:

605 - improve thought processes of students, i.e. objective reasoning divergent thinking, independent thought, critical thinking, problem solving, etc.
Source: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching; David Baral, Richard Snow, Dwight Allen.

However, there are three modules available for this competency, from different C.B.T.E. projects. As suggested, there is no shortage of material for trial.

General Principles

Seeking an acceptable balance between system and teacher needs, via an objective and precise diagnostic system, is essential if the overall objective of improving instruction is to be met.

Demonstrably effective programs do exist for professional development and a wide variety of possibly useful programs have been developed and could be field tested by school districts.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The set of general principles, taken together, form a reasonably coherent overview of inservice education, or professional development, at the present time. It is a field in transition, in which some very interesting new directions can be identified. Meade's (1971) summarizing comments parallel some of the general principles. With respect to problems:

> the existing provisions for inservice education are grossly inadequate. They suffer from three predominant and interrelated weaknesses: (1) time is not available on a regular and systematic basis for teacher retraining; (2) insufficient money is spent on retraining; and (3) an efficient method of retraining has not yet been devised (p. 220).

With respect to solutions:

> there are three essential steps that must be taken. First, we must acknowledge the great importance of teacher inservice education and assign it high priority in the administration of schooling. Second, having acknowledged need and priority, we must design and initiate new organizational procedures with which to pursue teacher improvement. And third, we must create a new management role - that of a training specialist - to insure that these procedures are carried out efficiently (p. 220).

To these comments I would add that continued research in teaching as a task, in the teacher behaviours associated with student achievement gains, and in programs capable of strengthening these behaviours is vital. Much of this can be done locally, for example, the field testing of some of the teacher competency programs listed in the Florida Catalogue.

Let me conclude with a comment about teaching as an activity, which is not made nearly often enough. Teaching is an enormously demanding and exhausting task. Those of us who have taught, and done other jobs to allow comparison, know that there is virtually nothing as demanding as teaching. Of the common professional activities, only the courtroom appearance of a lawyer, or the surgical activities of a physician, compare with teaching in the sustained demands on mental, emotional and physical energies. But these activities are not continuous in the way a teacher's work is, nor do they make

the demands on patience, self-discipline and caring that teaching does.

It is not surprising that there are poor teachers in schools, and teachers in need of help. Providing this help, not in the form of uplift sessions, but in the form of practical, teaching skills sessions, is probably the most important responsibility of the school administrator, and the best possible investment for a school board. For administrators, 25-30% of their time should be allocated to teacher evaluation and development concerns; for boards, not less than 1% of the operating budget should be allocated to the improvement of instruction via professional development.

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CHART 1

PROBLEMS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

1. WHO CARRIES ON INSERVICE TRAINING.
2. WHAT IS DONE BY WAY OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT.
3. FOR WHOM PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS CARRIED ON.
4. HOW PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SHOULD BE CARRIED ON.
5. WHEN INSERVICE SHOULD BE CARRIED ON.

THREE CYCLES OF TEACHER TRAINING

1. PERSONAL EDUCATION.
2. PRESERVICE EDUCATION AND INDUCTION.
3. INSERVICE EDUCATION AND TRAINING.

CHART 2

AREAS OF TEACHER DEVELOPMENT, STAGES OF GROWTH, AND RELATED SCREENING SYSTEMS

STAGES \ AREAS	KNOWLEDGE OF SUBJECT MATTER	PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE & ATTITUDES	TECHNICAL SKILLS OF TEACHING
PERSONAL EDUCATION	↓		
	ENTRY TO TEACHER TRAINING		
PRESERVICE EDUCATION		↓	↓
	CERTIFICATION AND PROBATIONARY YEARS		
INITIAL INSERVICE EDUCATION		↓	↓
	EVALUATION AS A TEACHER		
CONTINUING INSERVICE EDUCATION	↓	↓	↓
	FULL PROFESSIONAL STATUS AND COMPETENCE		

CHART 3

EDUCATION BY OBJECTIVES AND RESULTS (EBO/R)

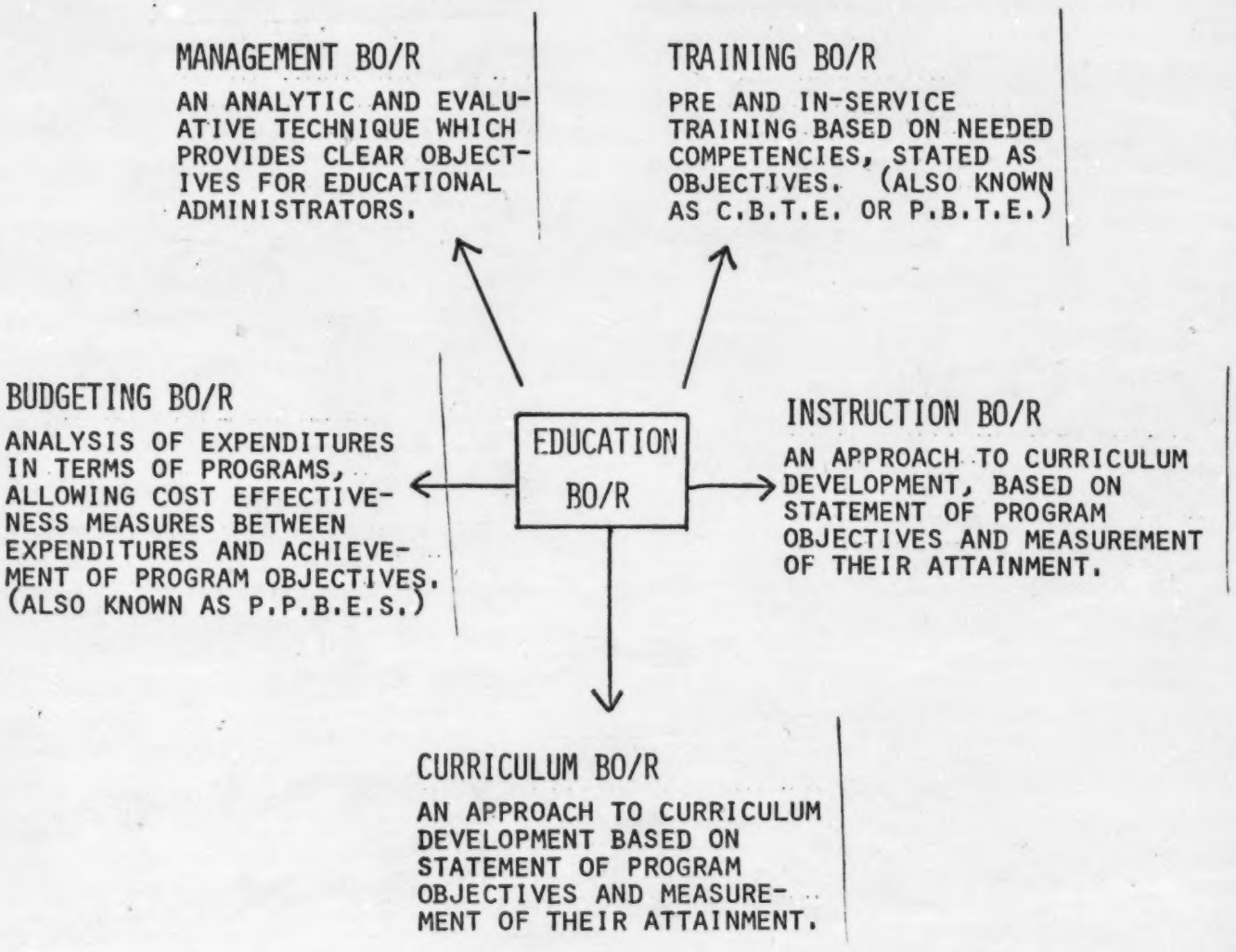

MANAGEMENT BO/R
AN ANALYTIC AND EVALUATIVE TECHNIQUE WHICH PROVIDES CLEAR OBJECTIVES FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS.
TRAINING BO/R
PRE AND IN-SERVICE TRAINING BASED ON NEEDED COMPETENCIES, STATED AS OBJECTIVES. (ALSO KNOWN AS C.B.T.E. OR P.B.T.E.)
BUDGETING BO/R
ANALYSIS OF EXPENDITURES IN TERMS OF PROGRAMS, ALLOWING COST EFFECTIVENESS MEASURES BETWEEN EXPENDITURES AND ACHIEVEMENT OF PROGRAM OBJECTIVES. (ALSO KNOWN AS P.P.B.E.S.)
EDUCATION BO/R
INSTRUCTION BO/R
AN APPROACH TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT, BASED ON STATEMENT OF PROGRAM OBJECTIVES AND MEASUREMENT OF THEIR ATTAINMENT.
CURRICULUM BO/R
AN APPROACH TO CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT BASED ON STATEMENT OF PROGRAM OBJECTIVES AND MEASUREMENT OF THEIR ATTAINMENT.

CHART 4

PROPOSITIONS CONCERNING EFFECTIVENESS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IN ENHANCING STUDENT LEARNING

1. Reliable gains in student learning do occur, on occasion, as a consequence of more effective teaching.
2. The characteristics of this effective teaching can be analyzed in terms of teacher classroom behaviours on certain dimensions.
3. Teacher behaviour on these dimensions can be changed positively.
4. Some inservice programs have demonstrated the ability to change the relevant behaviours.

VARIABLES IN TEACHER BEHAVIOUR RELATED TO STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT GAINS

1. CLARITY - clear explanations and instructions.
2. VARIABILITY - use of variety of types of activity and materials.
3. ENTHUSIASM - stimulating and energetic manner.
4. TASK ORIENTATION - focus on work and continuous effort to learn.
5. STUDENT OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN - teaching to specified objectives and content.
6. INDIRECTNESS - use of student ideas, high student participation.

CHART 5

PLANNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES

CRITICAL PATH FOR DISTRICT-WIDE AD HOC SYSTEM FOR PLANNING

1. ASSESS NEED FOR, OR ADVANTAGES OF, A DISTRICT-WIDE ACTIVITY AND ACQUIRE SOME MONEY.

2. ESTABLISH A PLANNING COMMITTEE.

3. IDENTIFY PURPOSES, GENERAL NATURE OF INSERVICE SESSIONS, AND EVALUATION PROCEDURES.

4. LIST SOME POSSIBLE TOPICS AND RESOURCE PEOPLE FOR SESSIONS.

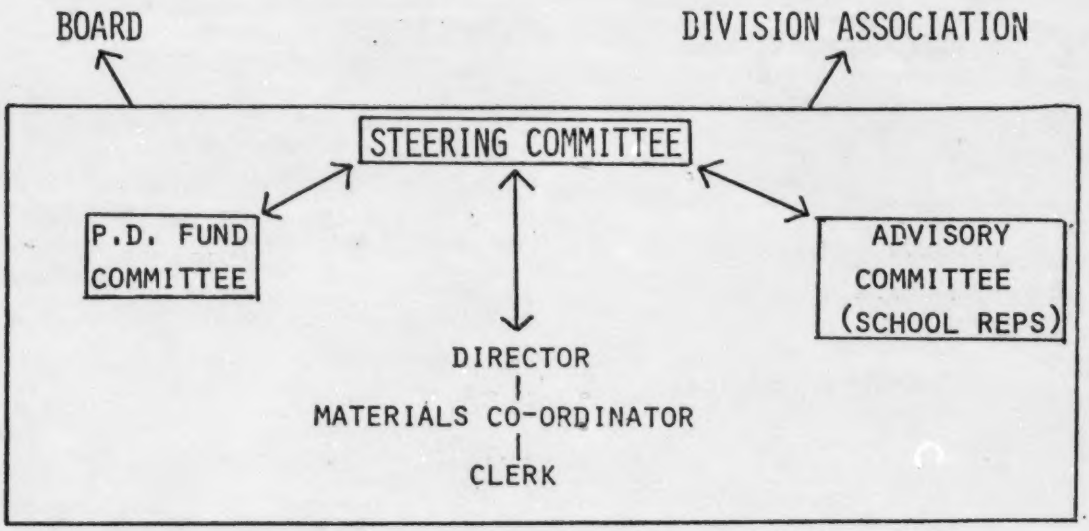
5. SURVEY TEACHERS FOR REACTION TO TENTATIVE LISTS, AND INITIAL REGISTRATIONS.

6. AMEND LIST OF SESSIONS, AND RESOURCE PEOPLE, AND RESURVEY FOR FIRM REGISTRATIONS.

7. HOLD SESSIONS, AND SUBSEQUENTLY EVALUATE THEM.

CHART 6

GOVERNANCE AND OBJECTIVES OF ST. BONIFACE TEACHER CENTRE



OBJECTIVES OF THE TEACHER CENTRE

TO PROVIDE A FOCUS AND SOME RESOURCES FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION THROUGH THE FOLLOWING MEANS:

1. BY PROVIDING A DISPLAY AND COLLECTION OF PROFESSIONAL AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS MAINLY TEACHER-DEVELOPED, WHICH WILL ENRICH EVERY VISITING TEACHER'S REPERTOIRE OF MATERIALS.
2. BY PROVIDING A RECOGNIZED LOCALE AND SOME CONSULTATIVE STAFF, DEVELOP AND PROVIDE IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS ON VARIOUS THEMES AND EMPHASIZING THE IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHING METHODS. THESE PROGRAMS WOULD ENABLE TEACHERS TO UNDERTAKE A CONTINUING SELF-DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM.
3. IN CONJUNCTION WITH THE PREVIOUS FUNCTIONS, TO ENCOURAGE THE DEVELOPMENT OF NEW PROGRAMS OR MODIFICATION OF OLD ONES IN ORDER TO BETTER MEET THE NEEDS OF STUDENTS.

STEERING COMMITTEE REPRESENTATION

1 SECONDARY PRINCIPAL
1 ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL
2 ELEMENTARY TEACHERS
2 SECONDARY TEACHERS
SUPERINTENDENT OR DELEGATE

CHART 7

TEACHER BEHAVIOUR AND RELEVANT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

TEACHER BEHAVIOURS	PROF. DEV. PROGRAMS	COMMENTS
1. CLARITY	MILTZ. How to Explain, (1971) ED 065-465	A PROGRAM DEVELOPED AND FIELD TESTED AT STANFORD UNIVERSITY.
	POPHAM & BAKER, THE PRENTICE-HALL TEACHER COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM (1973)	A PROGRAM DEVELOPED AT UCLA, "DESIGNED TO CONSIST LARGELY OF SELF-TEACHING AND SELF-TESTING MATERIALS" (P.4)
2. VARIABILITY	BORG ET AL, MINI-COURSE 9 (1970)	A COURSE ON HIGHER COGNITIVE LEVEL QUESTIONING, INCORPORATING USE OF MICROTEACHING.
3. ENTHUSIASM	NO PROGRAM	NO PROGRAM EXISTS, BUT A STUDY BY MASTIN (1963) SUGGESTS THAT SOME SIMPLE INSTRUCTIONS AND MICROTEACHING TRIALS CAN RESULT IN MORE ENTHUSIASTIC TEACHING.
4. TASK-ORIENTED BEHAVIOUR	MINICOURSES 8 - 15, MINICOURSE 18.	APPARENTLY EASILY TEACHABLE USING MICRO-TEACHING AS AN AIDE (WITTROCK, 1962). MINI COURSE FOCUSSING ON ORGANIZING INDEPENDENT LEARNING, AND ON TEACHING READING, WOULD BE USEFUL (STRICKLER, 1972).
5. STUDENT OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN CRITERION MATERIAL.	POPHAM & BAKER, THE PRENTICE-HALL TEACHER COMPETENCY DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM, 1973.	THIS SYSTEM FOCUSSES ON IDENTIFICATION OF OBJECTIVES, AND TEACHING TO THEM, AND HENCE WOULD HELP FOCUS INSTRUCTION ON RELEVANT MATERIALS.
6. INDIRECTNESS	ROBERSON CODE FOR TEACHER SELF-APPRAISAL (1970) BORG ET AL (1970) MINICOURSE 1.	ANY PROGRAM IN WHICH MICRO-TEACHING IS USED TO STUDY AND IMPROVE INTERACTION WOULD ASSIST IN THIS AREA. (WILSON, 1972, ROBERSON, 1969).

CHART 8

INSERVICE IN THE TOTAL TRAINING PATTERN

CLEARLY, THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS SHOULD BE PLANNED AS A CONTINUUM, IN WHICH ASPECTS OF THE TRAINING ARE CONDUCTED WHEN AND WHERE APPROPRIATE. IN THIS CONTEXT, INSERVICE TRAINING BECOMES RELATIVELY MORE IMPORTANT.

THE CONTENT OF THE TRAINING CONTINUUM OUGHT TO CONSIST OF THE OUTCOMES OF AN ANALYSIS OF THE ACT OF TEACHING. HOWEVER, THE NECESSARY RESEARCH HAS NOT YET BEEN COMPLETED.

PURPOSES OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

THE NOTION THAT PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IS CONCERNED WITH TEACHER GROWTH IS MORE ACCEPTABLE AND MROE GENERAL THAN THE NOTION OF CORRECTING DEFECTS.

THE GENERAL PURPOSE OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS IS THE IMPROVEMENT OF ISNTRUCTION. RECENTLY RESEARCH IN TEACHING AS A TASK HAS YIELDED SUFFICIENT INFORMATION TO ALLOW PLANNERS TO IDENTIFY PROGRAMS LIKELY TO BE EFFECTIVE IN IMPROVING INSTRUCTION.

POLITICS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION, TEACHER ASSOCIATIONS, UNIVERSITIES AND SCHOOLS ALL SEEK SOME MEASURE OF CONTROL OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR VARIOUS REASONS.

ALTHOUGH CONSORTIA OF THE VARIOUS PARTIES ARE CURRENTLY POPULAR, AS MEANS OF GOVERNING INSERVICE WORK, THE PONDEROUS DECISION-MAKING SYSTEMS OF SOME OF THE PARTIES ARE CERTAIN TO CAUSE FRUSTRATION. TEACHER/SCHOOL DISTRICT CONTROL IS RECOMMENDED.

PLANNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING SYSTEMS ARE IN GENERAL PREFERABLE TO AD HOC SYSTEM SYSTEMS BECAUSE THEY PROVIDE FOR A BROADER RANGE OF PROGRAMS, AND FOR CONTINUITY.

TEACHER CENTRES ARE A COMMON AND APPARENTLY PROMISING INSTITUTIONAL APPROACH TO PROVIDING INSERVICE PROGRAMS.

THE GOVERNANCE ISSUE, AND THE DIAGNOSIS OF TEACHER AND SYSTEM NEEDS, ARE VITAL, AND POTENTIALLY DESTRUCTIVE CONCERNS, IN PLANNING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS.

PRESCRIBING PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS

SEEKING AN ACCEPTABLE BALANCE BETWEEN SYSTEM AND TEACHER NEEDS, VIA AN OBJECTIVE AND PRECISE DIAGNOSTIC SYSTEM, IS ESSENTIAL IF THE OVERALL OBJECTIVE OF IMPROVING INSTRUCTION IS TO BE MET.

DEMONSTRABLY EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS DO EXIST FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND A WIDE VARIETY OF POSSIBLY USEFUL PROGRAMS HAVE BEEN DEVELOPED AND COULD BE FIELD TESTED BY SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

The Teacher Centre and Educational Renewal

Peter Coleman

APPENDIX B

Some Ideas About Educational Change

It is a cliche that the pace of change in education is terribly slow, so slow that in many cases those of our schools which last year were old fashioned, emphasizing discipline and basic skills, this year find themselves suddenly fashionable, and in tune with the "back to the basics" demand of some members of the general public.

The slowness of change in schools has been the subject of a good deal of research. We find that even when all parties concerned support some desirable change in current practice, perhaps the introduction of a new program, or the development of a new instructional methodology, its implementation often requires several years and is only moderately satisfactory. For example, a case study reported by Gross, Giacquinta, and Berstein (1971), found that an innovation not resisted by members of a school staff was only minimally adopted, because of teacher misunderstanding, lack of motivation, and lack of required capabilities, and because of shortage of required materials and incompatibility of other organizational arrangements with the innovation.

Many of the explanations for the slowness of change in schools are based on planned change models of innovations. Bennis, Benne, and Chin (1969) is "the major general source on the subject of planned change in all areas of social practice", according to Havelock (1973), who provides the most useful general guide to innovations in education. Resistance to change has typically been discussed in terms of the characteristics of the resistors, generally classified at least by implication as undesirable.

But Klein (1966) suggests that ". . . on the contrary opposition to change is also desirable in more complex social systems. It is further suggested that what is often considered to be irrational resistance to change is, in most instances, more likely to be either an attempt to maintain the integrity of the target system in response to real threat, or opposition to the agencies of change themselves."

Resistance to agents of change is probably frequently underestimated; it may well be that the notion of the change agent is in itself threatening. What the notion suggests, of course, is the universal expert who knows better

than you what is good for you or for your organization. It is not surprising that such people coming into educational or other organizations are frequently treated with a great deal of hostility. As Klein points out, the "alienation of the planners of change from the world of those for whom they are planning . . . is one of values as much as it is one of simple information." This view of Klein's leads us to a more general critique of current organizational theories, upon which planned change models depend.

Greenfield, in a recent critique of such theories and approaches to organizational change, suggests that "most of our current strategies rest upon an oversimplication that conveniently separates people and organizations. If we see individuals and organizations as inextricably intertwined, it may not be so easy to alter organizations without also cutting into something unexpectedly human." He argues that organizations are only "the perceived social reality within which individuals make decisions (1973)". Organizational goals then can best be seen as the outcome of a series of bargains and trade-offs arrived at by organizational members and (sometimes) clients. Because these trade-offs and agreements are themselves unstable, organizational goals may change quite rapidly.

This view owes something to decision making theory and particularly to notions of inducements and contributions (March & Simon, 1958). Additionally, it borrows from current speculations on exchange theories in organizations by such people as Jacobs (1974) and Georgiou (1973). These speculations are, I believe, a tardy realization by organizational theorists that a substantial degree of power equalization has long since taken place in most formal organizations, and that hierarchical models are long obsolete. Decision-making in complex organizations is often now a political process of bringing about compromises between various groups, some inside and some outside the organization, and each with effective veto power over major decisions. This is particularly true in schools, where teacher groups, parent groups, trustees and administrators (and in some cases student groups) all have legitimate and recognized interests and can influence decision-making. Hence the usefulness for organizational analysis of exchange, trade-off, bargaining or cooperation theories of organizational functioning.

One of the important considerations raised by such theories is the need to reexamine notions about resistance to change in organizations. As one laboratory rat purportedly said to the other, "Boy, have I got this guy trained. Every time I push this dumb bar, he gives me a food pellet." Change is best seen as a transactional process, involving modifications in expectations and behaviour of various members and clients of an organization. The changes which can be effectively implemented are then those which meet some needs of a wide variety of people including both members and clients.

To summarize these notions: schools are slow to change for a variety of reasons: they resist change because they have achieved a kind of shaky stability based on mainly unspoken agreements; because they do not share the values of change agents; because the usefulness of proposed changes in meeting perceived needs is unclear; and because they see change often as imposed and not the result of an agreement between the parties affected. Approaches to innovation in education which do not take these features into account are not likely to be very successful.

Teacher Centres: The St. Boniface Example

One of the currently fashionable innovations in education, the Teacher Centre, is about three years old in North America; it can be considered one attempt to institutionalize the capacity to change. Its place of origin is Britian, where it began as a response to a specific need — to communicate a centrally mandated, major curriculum revision to a very large teacher group. However, in Britain, the Teacher Centres rapidly diversified after having met the original need and now serve a wide variety of functions as defined by their members (Schools' Council, 1969). The number of Teacher Centres has also grown rapidly. "There are now some 200 in England and Wales, and practically every local education authority (country or municipality) has at least one . . ." (Morgan, 1973)

The notion has caught on rapidly in the United States, probably because of the attractiveness of the idea to teachers. As a profession, they have been more criticized for resistance to change than virtually any other group in Western society, often without

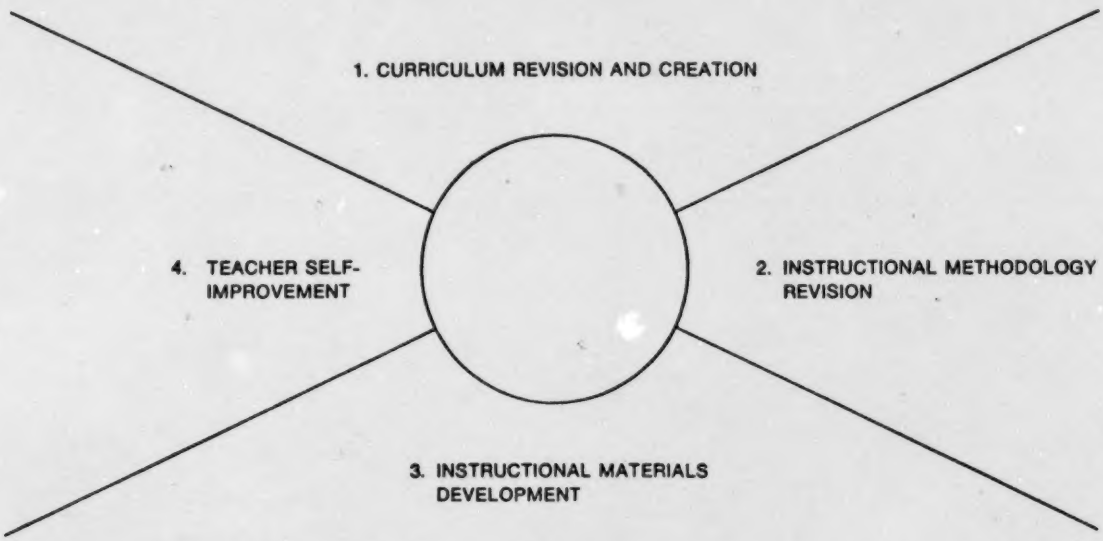
having the resources or the power to make significant changes. Bailey (1971) states the rationale for Teacher Centres thus:

> "The underlying rationale for Teacher Centres may be stated succienctly in terms of three interlocking propositions: 1) Fundamental educational reform will come only through those charged with the basic educational responsibility: to wit, the teachers; 2) teachers are unlikely to change their ways of doing things just because imperious, theoretical reformers —whether successions of Rickovers or Illiches or high-powered R. & D. missionaries from central educational systems — tell them to shape up! 3) teachers will take reform seriously only when they are responsible for defining their own educational problems, delineating their own needs, and receiving help on their own terms and turf."

Given this rationale, it follows that Teacher Centres will vary widely. No description of their functions can be more than temporarily true. The initial expectations for the Teacher Centre in St. Boniface were delineated very tentatively. The essential notion was that educational renewal could be approached via at least four main avenues (see diagram). The four obviously are closely linked, and attempts at renewal using one approach might well affect the other dimensions.

The overall expectation is that the Teacher Centre will stimulate program development, in the broadest sense, by providing teachers with a flexible resource to meet professional development needs with which they themselves identify. This must have the effect of improving the quality of instruction, if the Teacher Centre is to meet the most basic expectation. Thus the responsibility of the staff of the Centre is to act as a kind of resource linker, "someone who knows about resources, knows about people's needs, and knows how to bring clients and resources together (Havelock, 1973)."

The general method of operation is outlined in Table I. Clearly the underlying notion is of a version of Organizational Development activity with the Teacher Centre operating as a kind of O.D. Centre for the Division. The descriptions of processes are again


1. CURRICULUM REVISION AND CREATION
2. INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGY REVISION
3. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT
4. TEACHER SELF-IMPROVEMENT

41

Program Development Via A Teacher Centre: Elements and Processes

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT	PROCESSES			
	NEEDS ASSESSMENT	OBJECTIVES DEVELOPMENT	IMPLEMENTATION PROCEDURES	EVALUATION
1. CURRICULUM REVISION AND CREATION	Review cleint, or societal needs currently being met, or seen as relevant to a possible new program.	Develop curriculum objectives that seem likely to meet the needs.	Develop or acquire course descriptions which seem likely to serve the objectives and arrange a pilot project.	Assess the degree of relevance of the objectives to the needs, and the degree of success of the materials in meeting the objectives. Recycle as necessary.
2. INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGY REVISION	Review teachers' needs for changes in methodology consequent on program changes.	Develop requirements derived from educational goals and curriculum objectives.	Provide in-service programs, on a trial basis, for instruction in the methods and techniques derived.	Assess the usefulness of the methods & the success of the in-service programs, in meeting the needs of teachers and intructional requirements.
3. INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT	Assess needs for materials to supplement existing instructional materials.	Develop objectives to guide in materials acquisition, in particular orders of priority.	Acquire sample instructional materials for the use of teachers, & arrange displays.	Assess the use made of materials, the validity of the priorities established and the acceptance of some of the materials.
4. TEACHER SELF-IMPROVEMENT	Review teachers' knowledge of and needs for self-appraisal and self-improvement.	Develop a series of self-improvement objectives which might be usable by individuals.	Develop or acquire in-service programs and instructors useful to teachers.	Assess the success of the programs in meeting needs of teachers.

very tentative, and will certainly be modified in practice. Two important difficulties must be overcome if these processes are to work in practice: the acquisition of expertise, and organizational integration. They are closely related.

The Teacher Centre will have to acquire, either in the capacity of a full-time staff member, or as consultants, a substantial measure of expertise in the processes described. Process consultation of this type has been described in detail in a book by Schein (1969). The first stage, needs assessment, is absolutely critical and quite difficult. For example, in element 4, teacher self-improvement, the model requires an assessment of teacher needs. This might well turn out to imply a diagnostic technique of some precision, in which administrators, colleagues, and students assisted individual teachers in their attempt to identify their own professional development needs.

Clearly this model, emphasizing needs assessment as it does, assumes that teachers are not presently well informed about program development and personal professional development needs. Our experiences with in-service programs, briefly described in Coleman & Merry (1974), justify this assumption.

The second important difficulty is also related to this issue of diagnosis. The integration of teacher centre activities into ongoing organizational supervision functions is a complex problem. School administrators have been assigned the responsibility for program and staff supervision, and there is clearly ample opportunity for conflict between Teacher Centre staff and activities, and school administrators.

Ideally, supervision of programs and staff could be based on diagnostic models akin to those needed for teacher centre activities, and supervision could involve referral to the Teacher Centre of various problems identified by supervisors (primarily school principals) as part of their normal functions. To this end one of the initial workshops being offered at the Teacher Centre is an introduction to Popham's techniques, published as *Objective Analysis of Instruction* (1970).

These difficulties are essentially local ones, deriving from an attempt to integrate an innovation into a particular organization. There are however two predictable general difficulties, which have already been encountered by other educators experimenting with this innovation. First, the problem of release time for teachers is quite crucial. In 1970, at a series of national conferences on teachers' centres in Britain, a single major issue emerged:

"The greatest problem seen by all members was the demand of development work on the time and energy of teachers. Although some of the work is presently done during school hours, much of it takes place after 4 p.m. The financial and logistical problems associated with this central issue are at the heart of the possibilities for long-range success and survival of teachers' centres in Britian (Bailey, 1971)."

In St. Boniface, exactly the same problem has already been encountered. Forbidden by contract provisions from paying teachers for extra work, the Teacher Centre can only arrange for release time via the provision of substitute teachers, not a very satisfactory system, and quite an expensive one.

The second problem, that of control, has also arisen locally. Morgan (1971) notes that centres in the U.S. are encountering control problems. They have largely been provided by universities or regional laboratories, and funded by the U.S. Office of Education. As a consequence, "what they are struggling with is how to be funded by a legitimate part of the establishment without being taken over by that establishment." This si also reflected in the two masters served by the centre leader:

"The role of the centre leader is an interesting one. He is not yet a professional leader, nor is there as yet a distinct vocational role for him. He has to reconcile possibly conflicting interests — of the teachers of the employing authority (Morgan, 1971)." The reconciliation of conflicting interests is of course part of the role of any administrator in education (or any of the helping professions), but none the less difficult.

Our local resolution of this conflict, again very tentative, is as follows: since the school board is providing the money, accountability for its proper use is mandatory. However, the Teacher Centre Steering Committee, consisting at present of seven members, six appointed by the Division Association of the MTS, is responsible for meeting the personal professional and program development needs of teachers. The committee must satisfy the clients, and as long as it does so, in general it is using its funds in the intended

way. Thus, it is anticipated that the reporting of the Committee to the Board will largely consist of demonstrating that teacher needs have been met.

This form of evaluation is itself not very satisfactory, depending as it does largely on personal and subjective assessment. A really satisfactory evaluation of the Centre's effectiveness probably depends in large measure on the development of skills in the objective analysis of instruction, and the proper utilization of the Centre for the provision of opportunities of teacher self-improvement. Other program development activities, in which success is more easily attained, and more easily measured, will not compensate for a failure to bring about teacher self-improvement.

A final comment about the control issue — if the Teacher Centre is to be consistent with what seems to be the essential element in successful centres elsewhere, that it is operated by and for teachers, the Steering Committee must be successful in its development of operating policies. However, it may well be possible to operate the centre in such a way as to satisfy teachers, and yet have no impact on the quality of instruction. If that happens, then inevitably the life of teacher centres, in St. Boniface and elsewhere, will be relatively short.

To conclude positively: In Britian, "experience with the centre idea is still meager. But their stunning proliferation is testament to their meeting a felt need among teachers and among those who understand the futility of attempts to reform British education without the teachers' being directly and importantly involved (Bailey, 1971.")

In the U.S., "Teachers' Centres could form the essential but presently missing link between innovative ideas and pupil performance in the classroom (Bailey, 1971)."

In Manitoba, the decentralization of program development responsibilities, the continuing disenchantment with piece-meal in-service provisions, and the continuing concern with the improvement of the quality of instruction, together with the attractiveness of the Teacher Centre rationale to teachers, all suggest that we should at least try it. British teachers would say, "You'll like it."

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APPENDIX C

IN-SERVICE: HOW ST. BONIFACE MADE IT WORK - PETER COLEMAN AND SHIRLEY MERRY

The Manitoba Teacher

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In St. Boniface, division-wide in-services were abandoned several years ago, largely because extensive decentralization in decision-making and consequent divergences among school programs and organizations made them apparently unnecessary and irrelevant to the needs of teachers.

It was expected that schools would operate their own in-services, stressing their own priorities and concerns. However, experience demonstrated that not all schools were able to operate successful in-services. Furthermore, teachers in the division with common interests, teaching the same subjects and the same grade levels, were never able to meet and soon discovered the disadvantages of the lack of contact with each other.

Consequently, a divisional in-service was planned for early 1974. The planning committee consisted of the professional development chairman of the division association, a professional development representative from each school and the superintendent. The committee decided that the in-service should consist of two days, three weeks apart, in which the same groups would meet to work on the same topics. It also decided that participants would be divided into a large number of small groups of no more than 20 teachers rather than a small number of large groups.

The committee believed that small group sessions would increase teacher participation and make it possible to select topics closely related to the needs and interests of individual teachers.

In a brainstorming session, the committee developed an extensive list of topics of potential interest to teachers. In selecting and developing a workshop topic, the committee was guided by one basic criterion: to be used, a topic had to be relevant and useful to the teacher in his classroom practice either in present or future assignments.

The committee developed 43 workshop topics, 14 of general interest and 29 of grade level or subject area interest. A list of these topics was circulated to all teachers in the division with the request to make initial selections, indicating first, second and third choices. The returns resulted in the discarding of 14 of the suggested topics and the addition of three new topics.

Eventually, the following workshops were offered: kindergarten; reading, K-3; reading diagnosis, 4-6; language arts, 4-6; science, 4-6; social sciences, 4-6; mathematics, 4-6; remedial reading, 7-9; English, 7-12; science, 7-12; social studies, 7-12; mathematics, 7-12; computer science, 10-12; physical education, K-12; reading, K-3 (Fr.); French as a second language, 4-6; Français, 7-12; French as a second language, 7-12; arts and crafts; audio-visual education; family life education; home economics; individualized instruction; librarianship; business education; and the role of the school administrator. Several workshops, such as those dealing with music, arts and crafts, and individualized instruction, were divided into elementary and secondary sections.

The next task facing the committee was the selection of some possible resource people. A great many potential resource persons were identified, using Society sources, the personal knowledge of members of the committee and the Society's professional development department.

In addition, the committee developed brief outlines and descriptions of the anticipated content of the workshops and sent these to proposed resource persons. Eventually, a divisional in-service booklet, containing the list of workshops, brief descriptions of the topics, and the names of the resource people, was circulated to all schools. Teachers were given the option of changing their registration after they had had an opportunity to see who would serve as resource persons and examine the exact nature of the workshops. About 15 per cent of the teachers changed their initial registration at this point.

Approximately a week before the date of the first in-service a final list of workshops, resource people and workshop locations was distributed together with a list of registrants to all staff members. Workshops were held in all schools in the division.

An evaluation form was prepared by a sub-committee of the planning committee which, in effect, asked, "Did the workshop provide you with ideas, skills or materials which you have since used in your teaching?" The respondents could be divided into two main categories: teachers who attended a workshop relevant to their present assignment and teachers who attended a workshop relevant to a future assignment.

The first evaluation was held about three weeks after the second workshop. It yielded a return of 311 forms (approximately 69%). Sixty per cent of those who returned the questionnaire felt the workshop was relevant to their present assignment, 40 per cent felt it was relevant to a future assignment. Of the 254 who felt that the workshop was relevant to their present assignment, 207 (81%) indicated that the workshop provided them with ideas, skills and materials which they had since used in their teaching. Of the 198 who felt the workshop was more relevant to a future assignment, 177 (89%) reported that the workshop had provided them with useful skills, materials and ideas. All teachers were asked whether or not the in-service had served a sufficiently valuable purpose to be worth repeating in 1975. Of the 303 respondents, 251 (83%) answered in the affirmative.

Since such evaluations are notoriously subject to halo effects, even when made some time after the experience, it was decided to ask the same questions a second time, allowing several months to elapse. Consequently, an identical questionnaire was circulated in May. The results were almost unchanged. Again, approximately 60 per cent of the teachers said the workshop they attended had been relevant to their present assignment and 40 per cent that it had been relevant to a future assignment. This time, 83 per cent of those who felt the workshop had been relevant to their present assignment said the workshop had been useful while 89 per cent of those who felt the workshop they had attended had been relevant to a future assignment found it had been useful. In addition, 85 per cent of the teachers felt that a 1975 workshop session should be held.

The overall stability of the results suggested that the evaluation was fundamentally sound and accurately reflected the convictions of the teachers.

This result was unexpectedly good since it established that most participants had found the workshops of immediate and direct relevance to their classroom teaching. It convinced the committee that the results reflected the effectiveness of the model.

The most positive features of the model appear to be the small group sessions, the chance teachers have to select the session they want to attend, the surveying of teachers to identify in-service needs and the quality of the resource people.

This in-service for about 450 teachers was not particularly expensive. The total cost was $3,260. Of this, $1,550 was covered by contributions from the division association and the professional development branch of the Department of Education. The remainder was paid for by the division.

In-service activities such as these are or can be vitally important to teachers. With an energetic and enthusiastic planning group like the one in St. Boniface and competent resource people, other divisions using this model may well be equally successful. In any case, those who were involved in the St. Boniface in-service earlier this year believe they have demonstrated that divisional in-services can work and work well. ●